Saloniki Is the Macedonian Gateway to Near East

BY CHARLES M. PEPPER.

MAY Be the Center of Spring Campaign by Central Powers—The Question of Macedonia and the Balkans and the Conflict of Races and Religions Will Be in the Foreground When Peace Comes—Saloniki a Great Military Station of the Allies—Greece, Not in the War, May Suffer—A Technical Violation of Neutrality—Austrian Aspirations, and Claims of Serbia and Bulgaria.

SALONIKI may be the next move in the opening of the spring campaign by the central powers. That brings up the whole question of Macedonia and the Balkans, and the conflict of races and religions which always are in the foreground in the prospective readjustment of national boundaries whenever the war shall close.

Saloniki today is the great military station of the allies in the near east. It may be that the recent German aerial raids were merely in the nature of a reconnoiter, or they may have had a more serious purpose. But, as with the Zeppelins in England, innocent noncombatants suffer.

In the case of Saloniki it is not even a belligerent population that suffers, since nominally Saloniki is a neutral base, because Greece is not in the war. Greece, however, has not had much to say about the military occupation of its Macedonian port.

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The allies, in sending their belated troops to the rescue of Serbia, occupied Saloniki without asking leave. It was merely a technical violation of neutrality, they said, and the protest of the Greek government also was declared to be perfunctory—that is, the allies declared it to be so. At the time they had hopes that the Venizelos party would come back into power in Greece, and that Greece would become one of the belligerents on their side.

Matters did not shape themselves quite this way, since King Constantine and the German court party were able to keep the country neutral.

It is not of much consequence in the war strategy whether or not Greece cheerfully acquiesces in the military occupation of Saloniki by the allies. They are there to stay until the central powers and Turkey and Bulgaria drive them out, if it can be done. There seems little likelihood that Saloniki will prove another Gallipoli and that the allies will be compelled to retire. They were driven back in their relief expeditions for Serbia, but were not driven into the sea, nor are they likely to be unless there prove some unlooked-for development of German strategy. Saloniki as a naval base is too valuable for the allies to yield merely to soothe Grecian susceptibilities.

The Macedonian port is one of the many pawns of the great war in which the people whose territory is occupied have no part in shaping the outcome. It is the Austro-German gateway to the near east. Should the central powers ultimately extend their control so as to get the port there is little probability that Greece would ever again enter into complete possession of it, notwithstanding assurances that may have been given in order to prevent her from siding with the allies. The victors would be likely to take little heed of the claims of a neutral which was not strong enough to prevent the allies from occupying this strategic port, and was not ready to sacrifice her other coasts, which are so open to blockade and attack by the warships of the allies should Greece attempt to oppose them by force of arms.

The Austrian aspiration always has been to obtain control of this Aegean gateway to the near east. It is in the line of her expansion policy which required the practical annihilation of Serbia as an independent country in order that Austria might have a through route.

The first Balkan war seemed to balk Austria's ambitions. When the troops of the Balkan league occupied Saloniki in 1912, during the war with Turkey, there seemed no prospect that Austrian aspirations could be realized. It was the army of a united but not a homogeneous people who made the first occupation of Saloniki possible, for Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro and Greece were all in the league. It was felt then that, whatever might be the issue, Turkish domination of Macedonia and the Macedonian ports was ended. Probably that was correct, for no one now contemplates the possibility of Turkey regaining any of her lost European territory.

It was a long and somewhat crooked chapter that led to Greece's control of Macedonia and Saloniki, and this only was affirmed after the second Balkan war in which the members of the league fought among themselves and Greece and Serbia succeeded in defeating and humiliating Bulgaria and compelling her to yield Macedonia and its ports.

Then the rival claims of Serbia and Greece had to be adjusted. Serbia's aspiration, so often thwarted by Austria and Turkey, had been for the expansion of her territory through Macedonia clear to the sea. This aspiration had to be modified, but a diplomatic understanding was reached which gave Serbia port privileges of a very comprehensive character at Saloniki. There were also concessions regarding the railway line.

The Serbians wanted to construct a railway from their border straight through to Saloniki. The distance was short, only forty miles, and the construction cost would not have been great, but Greece was not willing that a foreign, even though friendly, government should own and operate a railroad right through its territory paralleling an existing line.

There was the possibility that the friendly government might at some future time become unfriendly, and there were other considerations of an international character. So Serbia did not get its unhampered outlet to the sea. Yet, had not the great war come, Serbia would have shared with Greece the advantages of the new trade route resulting from the politico-territorial changes.

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As the outcome of the Balkan wars Greece gained something more than thirteen thousand square miles of territory, embraced in what was known as Macedonia and Epirus. Much of this was farm lands, and the tobacco area gained was especially valuable.

The acquisition of Saloniki was expected to be a powerful factor in developing the resources of Macedonia and in stimulating the commerce of the Grecian mainland by means of the railway connection with central Europe, which had been thwarted during the years of Turkish dominion. This program had not had time to be worked out, but its initial features were promising when the great war came and checked Greece's expectations.

Bulgaria has a profound concern in the future control of Saloniki and the adjacent territory. It is inconceivable that if the central powers achieve any measure of success Bulgaria will be content that Saloniki shall remain a Grecian port. Thus far German diplomacy has achieved almost the miraculous in keeping the Bulgarian troops from crossing the Greek frontier, but in any military movement of the central powers against the allies at Saloniki Bulgaria would be more than willing to have a part. She would not be content with letting the Austrian and German troops secure whatever glory would result if the allies were compelled to evacuate Saloniki. Or she might be willing that the central powers should have the glory, provided she got the control of the port. The strip of territory which Bulgaria now has along the Aegean has little commercial or military value. A mountain chain shuts it off, and the ports of Dedegatch and Logos can never become commercial entrepots.

It is the treaty of Bucharest which Bulgaria hopes to revise as the reward for her participation on the side of the central powers. It was this treaty which embodied her humiliation in consequence of the second Balkan war. Under it Macedonia was divided between Greece and Serbia and a large Bulgarian population ceased to be under the Bulgarian flag.

Saloniki was yielded most reluctantly. It meant as much to Bulgaria as to Greece. The antipathy, amounting to bitter hatred, between the Bulgars and the Greeks was subordinated to the common hatred of Turkey in the first Balkan war. It found expression in the second Balkan war. Now, it is not conceivable that Bulgaria would have entered the great war without the expectation of settling her old scores with Greece and of obtaining all her lost Macedonian territory and its principal ports. Her situation as an ally of the central powers is not, however, promising, since with the crushing of Serbia she is liable to find herself between a Macedonian province of Austria, with Saloniki as the port, and her old historic enemy of Turkey.

Possibly, Austria, under Germany's direction, would be satisfied to have Saloniki a Bulgarian port, under an arrangement which would still make it an Austrian gateway to the near east, but until the central powers and their Turkish and Bulgarian allies get possession of Saloniki speculations of this kind are hardly worth indulging in.

"The Bulgarian peril" is what former Premier Venizelos calls the present situation of Saloniki. "The Grecian peril" is what the Bulgarians have called Saloniki since the sovereignty of the Aegean port passed to Greece.

Venizelos, in criticising the policy of King Constantine, recently has claimed that the utmost to be gained is to leave Greece the same size as at present, while Bulgaria, he says, trained by war, enlarged by the addition of Serbia and Macedonia and allied with the Turks, would not wait long before falling upon its southern neighbor. In these circumstances he maintains that Greece, unaided, would stand no chance of driving the Bulgars from Macedonia, once they have seized it. He places no faith in the German guarantees that the Bulgarians will evacuate Grecian Macedonia. This is what might be called the Greek national view.

When Mr. Venizelos was premier and was dreaming of restoring the ancient Hellenic empire throughout Asia Minor, he was never ready to cede any of Greece's Macedonian territory to Bulgaria, as the allies wanted him to do. That would have been lopping off one section of the ancient empire in order to restore another section of more doubtful value.

It is sometimes forgotten that Macedonia was the cradle of Grecian empire. The country of Philip and Alexander the Great, it was the hinterland for the extension eastward. After Philip conquered the Thracians and established something like homogeneity, it was Alexander who crossed the Hellespont and inaugurated the career of expansion eastward.

Philipp, on the border of Thrace, was where in later centuries Anthony and Octavius vanquished Brutus and Cassius.

Alexander made Babylon the capital of the Asiatic empire and proceeded to the conquest of India, only stopping short of the Ganges. It was Alexander whose rediscovery of the sea route from the Euphrates to the Indies opened the vision of the Macedonian Greeks to the commercial empire of the world as it then was.

Venizelos and his fellow Greeks, who have dreamed of restoring the territory of ancient Greece, have not had the expectation of Hellenizing the world as Alexander did. But they have had aspirations of an expanded Greece, which would Heilenize a large section of the near east, yet they never would expect to realize it without the Macedonian gateway of Saloniki.

Modern Macedonia as a part of European Turkey had no territorial significance any more than Armenia had as a part of Asiatic Turkey. Four centuries of Turkish rule did not permit its territorial aspirations to flourish. It was more famous as the home of brigandage.

The Moslem Albanians were the brigands who harassed the Christians. The Macedonian brigands were Christians themselves, and with them brigandage was a patriotic institution. The abduction of Miss Stone, the American missionary, several years ago, and her release on the payment of a ransom of $50,000, raised in the United States, was one of the incidents of Macedonian brigandage. The brigands wanted the money for use in their guerrilla warfare against the Turks. It was a forced contribution to the Macedonian national cause.

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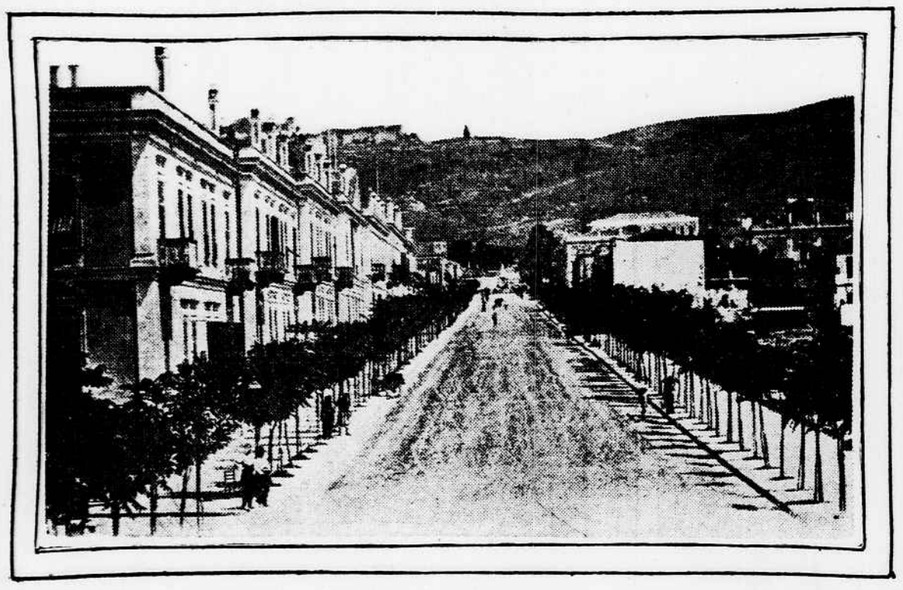
After the second Balkan war and the apportionment of Macedonian territory with the larger share going to Greece it was promised that there would be no more brigandage, since the Macedonians were no longer under Turkish misrule. This promise seemed to have been in a fair way of realization when Turkey became the ally of the central powers and then Bulgaria. The Bulgarians themselves knew something about the practice of brigandage, and it is possible that their experience has been utilized. Anyhow, Macedonia in the throes of war is not the home of brigandage that it was in the days of peaceful Turkish misrule.

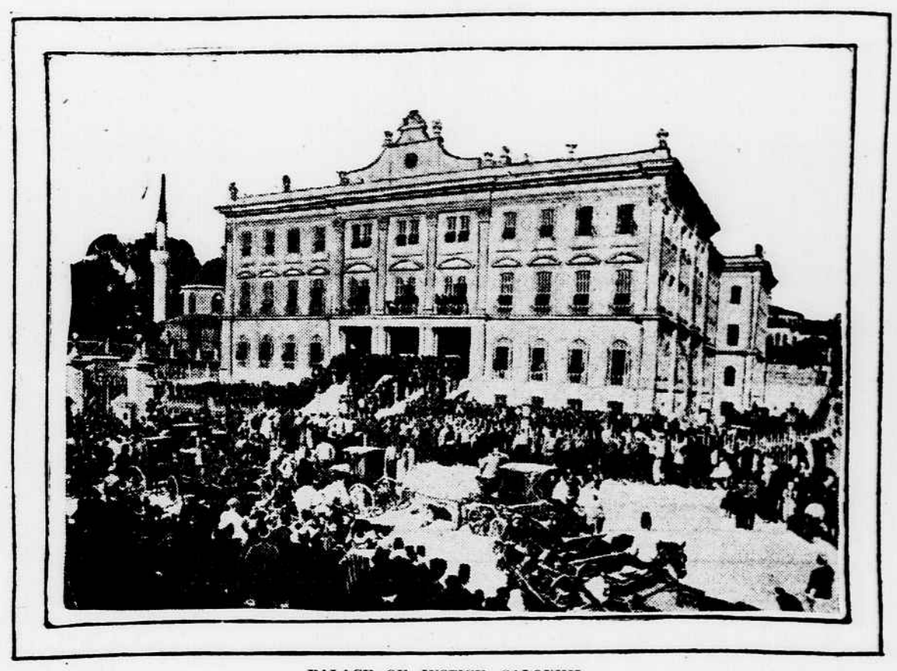
The greater part of it is still nominally under Grecian control. There are Macedonian members of the Greek parliament. It is they who have demanded the protection of Saloniki against aeroplane raids, and the Greek government is understood to have made a declaration to the central powers stating that any bombardment of Saloniki by aeroplanes would be considered as directed against Greece herself. The German answer, according to the press reports, was to remind Greece that so long as she permitted the allies to occupy Saloniki the city could not be considered as neutral territory. So the aerial raids continue to be made, and the allies continue to occupy Saloniki as a military base.

Greece is helpless as against either the allies or the central powers. Meantime, the hundred and seventy-five thousand civilian inhabitants of Saloniki can only await the issue of the war. Then they may look forward to some power or powers developing the city as the gateway to the near east.

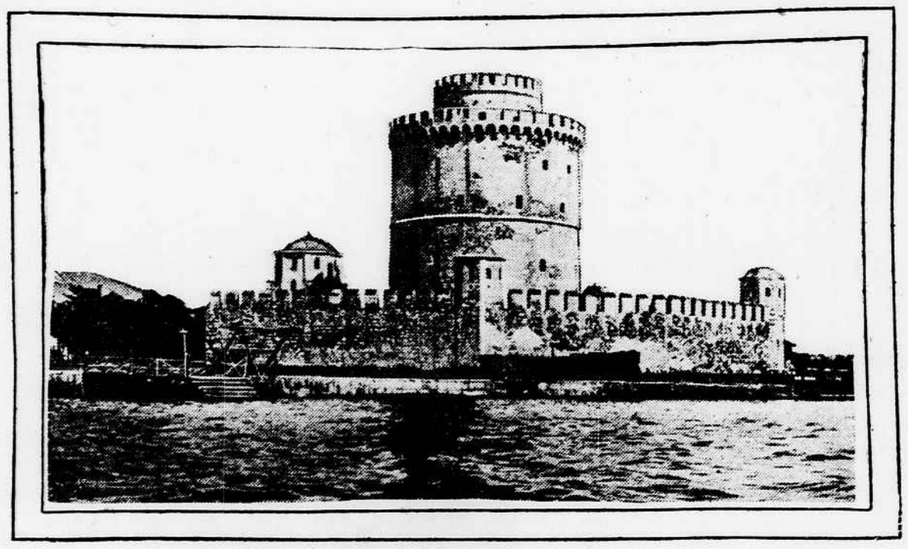


BOULEVARD IN SALONIKI.

TRIUMPHAL ARCH OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT, SALONIKI.



PALACE OF JUSTICE, SALONIKI.



FAMOUS WHITE TOWER OF SALONIKI.

Distinguished Scientists of Two Hemispheres Meet in Capital This Week

ANNUAL Session of National Academy of Sciences—Researches of Members Are the Most Important of Their Kind—Wide Range of Achievement—An Institution Which Brings Scientific Strength of the Country to Aid of the Government—Academy Established by Thirty-Seventh Congress—How Members Are Elected.

THIS week in Washington will bring together some of the world's most distinguished scientists—men of two hemispheres, who have accomplished the greatest feats in the world in the fields of science.

The work which each has done has entitled him to membership in the National Academy of Sciences, the organization which holds its annual meeting in this city from April 17 to 19. During the convention the most interesting phases of the work of each member will be the subjects of discussion, and it is mentioned that a number of new and radical expressions of scientific thought will be made. What the world has been doing in science during the past year; what the most eminent of the world's workers in this field have accomplished; what the great minds of the various countries anticipate will be discovered; these and related topics will be drawn from their secret places in the scientific minds and given to the public.

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The researches of the academy members are the most important of their kind, and the fact that they assemble yearly and discuss these researches is an evidence of the conditions which knit their interests together and assist in bringing them away from their laboratories and workshops. The work of each member acts, as it were, as a stick of dynamite, which serves to send the minds of the others flying off to new and undiscovered realms. The most important work of each member, as he submits it to the assembled academy, becomes a keystone to the arches on which others rear their structures.

No other scientific body in the country can command such a range of achievement or exhibit such a list of names upon its books. The deep influence which its members exert upon the scientific progress of the country gives it an enviable standing among the academies of the world.

It is the institution which brings the scientific strength of the country to the aid of the government. Whenever and wherever scientific truths are serviceable in government affairs the academy is called upon as scientific adviser. It is this capacity which gives it a place beside similar famous institutions the world over. In its quasi-official standing it ranks with the academies of science attached to the governments of Europe.

Election to this scientific association, incorporated during the civil war by Congress, may be regarded as a badge of distinction which the government, through this organization, bestows upon her illustrious servants for extraordinary scientific services. From this standpoint the feeling held among scientists in regard to membership in the academy is that it is a high honor, similar fundamentally, though not palpably, to those granted by the monarchial powers of the old world.

Consisting as it does of the most eminent scientific minds in the United States, the National Academy has, perforce, one of the most exclusive personnels of any scientific organization. It is, indeed, almost easier to enter the eye of a needle than to gain membership in it. Scientists, therefore, are doubly stimulated to qualify for admission into its distinguished ranks.

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This is one of the far-reaching influences which the existence of the academy exerts upon American scientific effort. This mode of encouraging achievement is entirely consistent with American ideals and a republican form of government. In foreign countries, as is well known, scientific discovery is stimulated by pensions, titles of honor and by many official and social distinctions such as are granted by the French academy and those of Berlin and Petrograd.

The establishment of a National Academy of Sciences in this country, though it follows the same general principle of organization which underlies these foreign academies—that of awarding merit to those who have enlarged the field of human thought and power—approaches the idea with characteristic democratic spirit. It marks a goal for the aspiration of laudable ambition in the boundless domains of science which neither interferes with national prejudices nor political principles. It is, indeed, an institution whose objects are only limited by the capacities of human intellect.

Carlyle has said that in every phenomenon the beginning is always the most notable movement. This statement may apply to the academy, though it may be contested on the ground that its existence has been notable throughout. However this may be, the initial efforts which brought the academy into existence are worthy of consideration.

The Thirty-seventh Congress, which was responsible for the incorporation of the academy, was called upon during the year 1863 to consider many measures of transcendent magnitude. It empowered the government to raise hundreds of millions of dollars and hundreds of thousands of men to protect the menaced life of the nation; it engraved freedom over every square mile of the nation's territory; it dealt with great questions of finance and revenue; it authorized the construction of railways to unite the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. The act of incorporation of the National Academy of Sciences was not the least in the long list of accomplishments which were destined to make this Congress memorable and to engrave a deep impression on the life of the nation.

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In connection with the conduct of the civil war the government was greatly in need of all sorts of technical advice. In February, 1863, this need became so insistent that the Secretary of the Navy, Gideon Welles, appointed what was called a "permanent commission" which should be called upon to report officially on various matters of science, chiefly those of a practical import.

The experts who acted on this commission were constantly in session, considering numerous questions, for at this time superior mechanical and scientific ingenuity as applied to naval and military affairs and equipment were beginning to be seriously encouraged, and the government was being flooded with all manner of inventions and new devices. The innumerable plans and proposals in regard to their settlement were referred to the commission.

From the services which it rendered, officials were brought to see that such a consulting commission was an admirable adjunct to the government, and it was recommended that a permanent consulting body of scientists be organized. Upon this foundation rested the establishment of the National Academy of Sciences. In the latter part of February of the same year a bill was introduced in the Senate by Senator Henry Wilson of Massachusetts to incorporate a National Academy. This bill, also introduced in the House, was passed and was signed by President Lincoln March 3. With a remarkable momentum did the academy begin its career.

The primary purpose of bringing the institution into being was to make the scientific strength of the country an aid to the government in guiding all national actions which require a profound knowledge of scientific principles.

The membership of the academy includes active, honorary and foreign associate members. Of this latter class there are fifty, who have the privilege of attending meetings, reading and communicating papers to the academy, though they are allowed no part in its business affairs. The election of new members entails a process of sifting and resifting which insures a final selection of only such members as are preferred by the majority. Each nomination comes from its appropriate committee, and when submitted to the secretary is accompanied by a list of the principal contributions which the proposed member has made to science. During a period of some months, which elapses before the final balloting on his name, a research committee consisting of the whole academy investigates his merit and votes by mail.

Then at the annual election preference votes are taken on all names finally submitted for membership, but only fifteen persons can be elected at any one annual meeting. The choice of each new member is therefore a matter of personal responsibility to each of his colleagues-to-be. Those who have received a high preliminary vote usually get in easily on the final vote, but not the others.

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A glance at the list of members of the academy, past and present, reveals a great collection of names of men high in scientific circles. Practically every university in the country is represented; famous observatories, laboratories, institutes, all have their illustrious workers upon the list. In every center of learning of Europe resides at least one foreign member of the academy. The present list of officers is headed by William Henry Welch, president. Prof. Welch is dean of the medical faculty of Johns Hopkins University and is one of the foremost pathologists in the world. He holds degrees from Yale, Columbia, Strasburg, Leipzig, Breslau, Berlin, Vienna, Munich, Gottingen, Harvard and Princeton.

The vice president is Dr. Charles D. Walcott, who is now secretary of the Smithsonian Institution. Dr. Walcott is a geologist and paleontologist of distinction and has been identified with some of the country's greatest institutions of scientific research. He was for many years director of the United States geological survey and reclamation service, and is one of the directors of the Carnegie Institution. He has been honored with a number of medals and holds fellowships in scientific societies in England, Norway and Italy.

Dr. George Ellery Hale of the solar observatory at Pasadena, Cal., is the foreign secretary of the academy. Dr. Hale is an authority on astrophysics and has held a number of important directorships and professorships in different parts of the country. Dr. Hale is a member of nearly every royal academy of Europe and is associated with the foremost scientific societies of the United States. He is a son of the late William Ellery Hale of Chicago, whose name has been memorialized by his children in the Hale lectures of the National Academy, the fourth course of which will be delivered at the coming convention by Prof. Henry F. Osborn.

The director of the geophysical laboratory of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, Dr. Arthur L. Day, who is a distinguished physicist interested in high temperature changes as they affect the structure of rocks, is the home secretary of the academy. Dr. Day was an instructor in physics at Yale, research student for several years in Germany, and for six years was physical geologist in the geological survey.

Dr. Whitman Cross, treasurer, is another officer of the academy who is an eminent geologist. After graduating from Amherst in 1875 he went to Gottingen and Leipzig for additional training. On his return to the United States he became assistant geologist, and finally geologist of the geological survey. He has made special surveys in Colorado and is an authority on petrology and mineralogy.

Since the society's inception, the members have done much to advance abstract science and quicken its development in little known branches. The academy has examined and experimented upon many subjects on which the government desired information. Its work in this connection is unique, for only on exceptional occasions and difficult problems is it called into conference.

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Many scientific bureaus have sprung into existence since 1863 in the various departments of the government service, each carrying on specialized investigations in widely diverse lines. The academy has been consulted on subjects which reach beyond the scope of any single department. Its work does not interfere with the different bureaus in any way. In fact, it is always disposed to look upon the problems that are set before it with a desire to furnish constructive recommendations rather than destructive criticisms of the work of any established office.

The most recent instance of the cooperation of the academy with the government in the solution of its scientific problems was the appointment of a special commission of members to investigate the cause of the frequency of landslides at the Panama canal, and Prof. Charles R. Van Hise, president of the University of Wisconsin, distinguished geologist and chairman of the commission, will report on this subject at this meeting of the academy.

In 1914 the academy was called upon by President Wilson to designate a member to serve on a special commission to study the condition of the fur seal herds at the Pribilof Islands. The academy was also asked in 1913 by President Wilson to advise concerning the selection of a new head for the United States weather bureau.

In case of war between the United States and any foreign power the National Academy would be the first organization to be consulted by the government. Its suggestions would range over all matters connected with warfare, especially those essentials which are so often lost sight of, questions of sanitation, handling of epidemics, the prompt adaptation of physical, mechanical and chemical discoveries to military use.

Many endowments and donations for the promotion of science have been accepted by the academy, and these are the principal source of its moderate income. Conspicuous among these are the William Ellery Hale lectures. This series, five in all, is to cover the general subject of evolution, giving a comprehensive outline of the broad features of inorganic and organic development in the light of modern research, the whole to be finally published together.

Effort has been made in the lectures that have already been given to choose lecturers who have been leaders in the development of some phase of this general subject, and in pursuit of this plan the first course was devoted to the general subject of the evolution of matter. Sir Ernest Rutherford of Manchester, England, whose studies of radium have done much to create a new epoch in the modern knowledge of matter, inaugurated the course by a series of lectures. He paved the way

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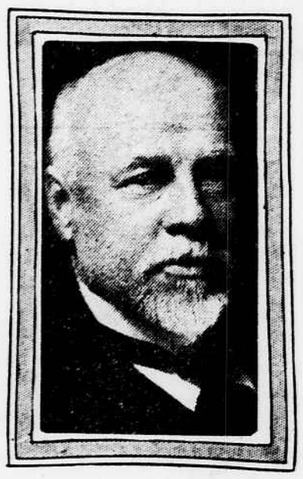

DR. WILLIAM H. WELCH, President of National Academy of Sciences.

DR. GEORGE E. HALE, Foreign secretary of National Academy.

DR. ARTHUR L. DAY, Home secretary of National Academy.

CHARLES D. WALCOTT, Vice president of National Academy.

DR. WHITMAN CROSS, Treasurer of National Academy.

PROF. HENRY F. OSBORN, President of American Museum of Natural History.